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Some Demographic and Socio-psychological Determinants of Filipino Nurse Migration to Chicago, Illinois

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SOME DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL DETERMINANTS OF FILIPINO NURSE MIGRATION TO CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The twentieth century will be called many different things by future historians - The Age of Global War, perhaps, The Age of Mass Society, or maybe, The Age of Psychoanalysis, or The Age of the New Nations, to name but a few of the possibilities. Another name that historians will not fail to give our century is The Age of the Migrant.

It is evident that during the past two centuries and continuing up into the present time man has been on the move. Men move within the confines of their own countries as well as crossing frontiers and establishing residences in other lands. The former called internal migration is often a rural-to-urban phenomenon and seems to be not only a characteristic of the developing nations but of the industrially advanced nations as well, as the migration of Appalachian Whites and Southern Blacks to Northern American cities illustrates.

The latter form of migration, i.e. beyond one's country, has taken on a new dimension in the last decade. There has been and continues to be a selective talent migration, popularly called the brain drain, and in the recent past the direction of this migration has been

TABLE I

EMIGRATION TO THE U.S.A. OF SCIENTISTS, ENGINEERS, AND PHYSICIANS

FISCAL YEARS, 1956, 1962-1968[a]

Fiscal Year	Total Immigrants All Countries	Immigrants Developed Countries[b]		Immigrants Developing Countries	
	N	N	%	N	%
1956	5373	3604	67.1	1769	32.9
1962	5956	3573	60.0	2383	40.0
1963	7896	4534	57.4	3362	42.6
1964	7810	4607	59.0	3203	41.0
1965	7198	4548	63.2	2650	36.8
1966	9534	5144	54.0	4390	46.0
1967	15,272	7359	48.2	7913	51.8

[a]Source of Table: United States House Committee on Government Operations, 1968a.

[b]Developed countries include the European countries, Canada, Japan, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand.

TABLE 2

MIGRATING PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND KINDRED WORKERS (PTK) FROM SELECTED COUNTRIES TO THE U.S.A. IN 1967[a]

Country	Number of PTK Workers	Corrected for Population of Each Country (per 100,000)
Philippines	3517	4.6
Taiwan	2109	6.9
India	2077	0.4
Korea	830	2.5
Japan	525	0.1

[a]Source of Table: The Committee on the International Migration of Talent, 1970.

particularily visible because it has been concentrated heavily in one professional area, namely, medicine. A total of 1225 medical professionals from the Philippines emigrated to the United States in 1967. (Table 3) Considering physicians and surgeons alone, the scale of Filipino migration in 1967 was more than six times that of physicians from any other Asian country, including Hong Kong.

Apart from its differing migration pattern the Philippines is rather typical of other South East Asian countries. The Philippines is small and poor with an estimated per capita income of $163 (US) in 1966. Another estimate puts the per capita income at $130 per person and $280 per adult. (Murphy, 1969) This average income is higher than that of Malaysia or Singapore, but one-fourth that of Japan, one-tenth that of Europe, and one-twentieth that of the United States.

The Philippines has had a long colonial history that stretches back to 1521 with the arrival of the Spanish. Spanish domination continued until 1898 when control of the islands passed into American hands as a result of the Spanish-American War. The Philippines has been an independent republic since 1946.

Even though Philippine culture is remarkably homogeneous in comparison with other Asian countries such as India and Malaysia, there exists many important barriers to national cohesion in the Philippines. The most obvious is the fact that the Philippines is composed of more than 7100 islands that stretch almost 1000 miles from North to South.

Although the vast majority of Filipinos share a common Malaysian racial origin, the government recognizes close to 50 separate ethnic

TABLE 3

BREAKDOWN BY SUB-PROFESSION OF MIGRATING MEDICAL WORKERS FROM THE PHILIPPINES TO THE U.S.A. IN 1967[a]

Sub-Profession	N
Physicians	550
Nurses	435
Medical Technicians	84
Pharmicists	67
Dentists	62
Optometrists	17
Student Nurses	10
Total	1225

[a]Source of Table: Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1968.

groups of which the three largest are Visayan, Tagalog and Ilocano. These three groups make up almost 75% of the native population identified by language.

The Philippines is and will probably remain for some time a predominately rural society. At the present time about 85% of the people live in barrios and poblacions. Of the 15% who live in cities more than half live in Manila. In 1965 the population of Manila was 2.7 million. In 1980 the expected population of Manila will be between 7 and 10 million.

The Philippines has one of the highest population growth rates in the world. In 1968 the annual rate of population increase was 3.6%. Figures provided by the University of the Philippines trace this skyrocketing growth in this way. In 1877 the Philippine population stood at 5.5 million people. At the start of the American regime, in 1903, the population had risen to 7.6 million. When World War II erupted the population of the islands had already reached 19.2 million or more than double the 1903 figure. Growth continued and by 1960 the population was 27.4 million. In 1965 it topped 32.2 million. The present result is that in 70 years the population of the Philippines has quadrupled. By 1980 the Philippine population is expected to reach the 54 million mark.

Although educated persons enjoy high prestige in the Philippines and the distribution of education at a high level may be more widespread than in any other Asian developing nation, the islands offer relatively low rewards in income and standard of living, extreme com-

petition for attractive employment opportunities, and relatively poor professional facilities for the Filipino professional. However, as Heather Low Ruth (1971:58) asks:

> Is the Philippines a worse place to make a home and a career for a doctor, engineer, or scientist than, say, India whose per capita income is lower by more than one-third but whose professionals emigrate to the United States at a rate, corrected for population, of only one-twelfth that of Filipino professionals? Or worse than Korea, still rebuilding from a devastating war and nationally divided, whose per capita income is lower by almost one-third but whose professionals emigrate to the United States at a corrected rate almost one-half that of Filipino professionals?

Clearly it is not very helpful to merely say that developing countries lose "brains" to the United States because they are underdeveloped. The picture is much larger and more complex.

A high level of Filipino migrants to the United States is not a completely new phenomenon. The United States entered the decade of concern about the brain drain with a large Filipino community, almost one-half of whom in 1960 had been born outside the United States and, therefore, were residents as a result of migration in this generation. (Table 4) If Chinese emigration to the United States had followed the same pattern as that of Filipinos in proportion to their respective national populations, the expected number of foreign-born Chinese in the United States would have been more than twenty-three times that of the 1960 census. If the same comparison was made for foreign-born Japanese in the United States, the expected number would have been almost three times as great.

The pattern of unusually heavy migration of Filipinos to the United States has been influenced in large measure by the long period

TABLE 4

FIVE LARGEST NON-WHITE RACIAL GROUPS IN THE U.S.A. IN 1960[a]

Racial Group	Total in USA	Foreign Born	Foreign Born as % Of The Total
Black	18,848,619	125,322	0.7
American Indian	546,228	-------	0.0
Japanese	473,170	101,656	21.5
Chinese	236,084	93,228	39.5
Filipino	181,614	88,805	48.9

[a]Source of Table: Derived from U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1960, "Nonwhite Population by Race," Volume II (Series PC(2) reports), Chapter C, Tables 1-5, 8, pp. 1-5, 8.

of association between the two countries, beginning in 1898 with the cession of the islands by Spain to the United States. As in the case of other colonial relationships, the easiest and most profitable route of permanent departure for Filipinos led to the United States which represented the origin of imposed colonial culture and language, the seat of ultimate political authority, and the economic and cultural metropole. The relatively amicable Philippine-American colonial experience ensured that this pattern of migration would continue even after the independence of the Philippines in 1946.

This historic migration, begun in colonial times, cannot accurately be described as a brain drain. In 1960 the Filipino community in the United States possessed a somewhat representative cross section of skills. Only 6% of the employed men and 24% of the employed women claimed professional, technical, and kindred skills and occupations in the census report of that year. (Table 5) With the exception of the heavy incidence of highly skilled women which may be unique to the Philippines, we would expect this pattern to be typical of communities of former colonial nationalities resident in the advanced countries that once ruled them.

This existence of a large Filipino community in the United States of colonial origins does provide some standard against which the changing character of Filipino migration in recent years may be roughly measured. The Filipino minority living in the United States in 1960 was, on the average, substantially below high level in educational attainment and level of employment. Yet median level of education and the

TABLE 5

FILIPINO RESIDENTS IN THE U.S.A. WITH PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND KINDRED (PTK) SKILLS IN 1960 BY SEX[a]

	Male		Female		Total
	N	%	N	%	N
With PTK Skills	7,252	(6%)	14,578	(24%)	21,830
Without PTK Skills	113,622	(94%)	46,162	(76%)	159,784
Total	120,874		60,740		181,614

[a]Source of Table: U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1960, "Nonwhite Population by Race," Tables 23, 36, and 41.

proportion in professional and technical jobs was significantly higher for foreign-born Filipinos, both men and women, than for the native-born.

It is clear that the individual Filipino who migrated from his country in this generation has a better educational background and better employment prospects in the United States, on the average, than the descendants of Filipinos who emigrated in the past. The average quality of manpower emigrating from the Philippines is clearly improving. While the pattern of heavy migration of Filipinos to the United States is, in a large part, the result of the colonial era, this historic attraction has been reinforced and strengthened by post colonial factors which have increasingly favored the highly skilled.

The number of PTK workers migrating from the Philippines to the United States is very large and has been increasing rapidly in recent years. (Table 6) In addition to having one of the highest rates of professional emigration corrected for population for all of Asia, the Philippines also has the highest rate of increase in that flow. Between 1962 and 1967 the number of migrants from the Philippines increased at an average rate of 59% per year.

These raw immigration data do not offer a very accurate measure of net migration of professional workers from the Philippines. Despite certain recognized inadequacies, however, both the high levels of migration to the United States and the trend toward rapid increase as shown in Table 6 have caused serious concern both in the United States and in the Philippines.

TABLE 6

PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND KINDRED WORKERS ADMITTED TO THE U.S.A. FROM THE PHILIPPINES, 1962-67[a]

Profession	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
All PTK Workers	351	582	251	275	950	3517
Total Physicians, Engineers, Natural Scientists, and Professors in the Sciences	136	188	84	84	357	1005
Physicians	119	101	63	66	259	550
Engineers	13	80	14	11	83	346
Natural Scientists	2	4	7	7	9	85
Professors	2	3	0	0	6	24
All Others	215	394	167	191	593	2512
Nurses	58	79	43	41	137	435
Other Medical	25	42	24	18	87	240
Social Scientists	4	8	1	4	15	19
Remainder	128	265	99	126	354	1818

[a]Source of Table: Compiled from U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service tabulation of "Immigrants Admitted as Professional, Technical and Kindred Workers by Country or Region of Last Permanent Residence and Occupation." Sheet 2.

The 1965 Immigration Act has a remarkable effect on the number of migrating Filipino professionals. In 1965 only 275 PTK workers came from the Philippines to the United States. Two years later in 1967 this number reached 3517. By 1969, of the 40,427 PTK workers who emigrated to the United States under the new Immigration Act, 7396 (about 18%) were from the Philippines. The United States' Department of Justice in a report indicated that the Philippines has become the single largest sending country with respect to the migration of skilled personnel, having almost three times as many migrants as Great Britain, the European leader. In 1968 The United States Bureau of Security and Consular Affairs reported that of the 50,000 applicants in the third preference professional category waiting lists some 19,369 or more than one-third were Filipinos.

Even though the number of migrating Filipinos has been large, a number of factors argue against undue concern. First, this high rate of increase in the number of professional migrants cannot continue indefinitely under the present U.S. law. It must level off, regardless of the remaining unsatisfied desire to migrate from the Philippines, at a maximum where the total number of migrants from the Philippines in any one year is no greater than 10% of the total immigrants from all countries to the United States.

Secondly, scientific and technical manpower, about whom the most concern is expressed, has made up decreasing proportions of the total professional migration from the Philippines in recent years. Medical personnel made up over one-half (55%) of all PTK migration

from the Philippines in 1962, whereas it composed only 35% in 1967. Similarly, all high level scientific manpower made up only 39% of the total PTK migration in 1962, whereas in 1967 it composed 29%. It appears clear that most of the demands for opportunities to emigrate and most of the opportunities opened up by the new Immigration law have been satisfied and exploited by Filipinos with non-scientific training. Most of these are probably college graduates in the liberal arts. This shifting away from the sciences in the composition of high level migration from the Philippines has been much more pronounced than in other Asian countries.

Finally, even at the current high level of migration, the number of migrating Filipino professionals involved does not in the aggregate appear to be significant either in terms of available stocks of high level manpower remaining in the Philippines or in comparison with the flow of potential high level manpower from Philippine universities. Professional migration in 1965 was equivalent to only 1.2% of the total number of graduates of Philippine colleges and universities. High level migration to the United States represented a tiny proportion of the remaining PTK manpower stock in the Philippines. Medical personnel coming to the United States in the same year were equivalent to only 8.6% of the Philippine graduates from medical schools.

While the most significant potential danger remains in the scientific fields, a continuation of the present compositional trends in Filipino migration would reverse this possible vulnerability. There does not appear to be evidence that the present loss is actually dam-

aging.

In summary, despite the high level of PTK migration from the Philippines to the United States and the very high rate of increase as compared with most other countries, it is far from obvious with the available statistics that this level of migration could be responsible for a major disruption of the Philippine high level manpower market. In the aggregate any noticeable detrimental impact appears extremely unlikely.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Demographic Viewpoint

The most extensive studies in the recent related literature have attempted to show the link between certain demographic factors or determinants and skilled migration.

Ladinsky's (1967) study of geographical mobility among professionals in the United States isolated occupation as a factor in migration. Individual workers having an occupation least dependent on their ties to the local community and having universally saleable skills and no immoveable property tended to migrate.

Bello et al. (1969) found the following demographic variables to be related to the migration of skilled Filipinos to the United States. (1) country of post-college studies: those who study abroad are about eight times more likely to emigrate than those who study locally in the Philippines or not at all. (2) sex of the student: of men and women college graduates who do not study abroad, men tend to emigrate slightly more than women; of those who study abroad, women are $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more

likely to emigrate than men. (3) college courses taken: graduates in the liberal arts, engineering, and commerce are much more likely to emigrate than those who have studied education or law. (4) college attended: alumni of relatively high quality colleges and universities in the Manila area are much more likely to emigrate than the alumni of institutions outside metropolitan Manila, or of school of less quality elsewhere; graduates of all-female colleges and universities are less likely to emigrate than those from all-male or coeducational schools. (5) source of support: students who enjoyed fellowship support during their studies are about twice as likely to return and stay in the Philippines than those who paid their own way.

Cortes (1970) studied Filipino migrants and returnees who had previously undergone advanced studies or training in the United States. Her research found. (1) younger people tended to emigrate more than older people. (2) graduates of Filipino private schools tended to migrate more than graduates of Filipino public schools. (3) employees of Philippine private corporations tended to migrate more than employees of the Philippine government. (4) U.S. degree holders tended to emigrate more than U.S. educated Filipinos who never received an American degree. (5) scholars with no job ties in the Philippines during the period of their U.S. studies tended to migrate more than those with established job ties in the Philippines. (6) scholars who were single at the start of their U.S. studies tended to emigrate more than scholars who were married. (7) scholars who were married to non-Filipinos tended to migrate more than those who were married to cit-

izens of the Philippines.

Environmental Viewpoint

Environmental factors causing migration are those unsatisfactory aspects of the country of origin that produce emigration (The PUSH Factors) along with those attractive aspects of the country of destination that produce immigration (The PULL Factors). Examples of push factors would include: psychological alienation from the home country and its culture, limited job possibilities in the home country, lack of a receptivity to change, irrelevance of foreign training undertaken, discrimination on non-economic grounds in the home country, and political persecution or the anticipation of it.

The pull factors in the country of destination would include: high salaries and rapid advancement, especially in certain areas like the medical and nursing professions where shortages exist, more favorable conditions for professional growth, a high standard of living which permits one to enjoy the amenities of life, and personal ties such as marriage to an American.

Many theoretical investigations regarding causes of the brain drain have focused on environmental factors (Stouffer, 1962; Caplow, 1954; Dedijer, 1961; Cohen, 1963; Adams, 1968; and Gutierrez, 1966). In spite of this fact very few empirical studies have attempted to measure the contribution that environmental factors make to migration. Two studies worth considering linked salary and professional advancement to migration.

Gutierrez and Riquelme (1965) in studying Chilean migrants to the

United States found that the migrants' primary motive for emigrating was professional progress and advancement. This was followed by the lure of higher pay and greater professional recognition in the United States.

Wilson (1966) studying British scientists who emigrated to the United States obtained essentially the same findings. Permanent emigrants tended to have higher salaries and greater optimism about satisfaction of their personal professional ambitions than temporary migrants who eventually intended to return to England.

Socio-Psychological Viewpoint

Many other studies have centered their attention on the importance of socio-psychological determinants of migration. Wilson (1968: 437) stressed the need of investigating the role of such variables in the decision of whether to migrate or not.

> Britain is full of scientists and other professionals who have turned down lucrative and exciting offers from North America and elsewhere that seem to attract others. Why is migration the response of some and not of others? The answer would not appear to lie in the environment, because environmental factors seem to evoke migration and non-migration. The deciding factor appears to be in the motivational and value patterns of the individuals themselves.

Richardson (1956, 1959) compared British skilled migrants with non-migrant control groups and found that the emigrants appear to be more ambitious, more motivated, and more interested in action and hard work than the non-migrants.

Wilson (1966, 1968) found that permanent migrants had a higher level of aspiration and a higher need for achievement than temporary

migrants.

Chu (1966) in studying foreign students at Stanford found that migration expectations were positively related to the rejection of one's own previous cultural values and to the acceptance of the host country's cultural values.

Cortes (1970) found that migrating Filipino professionals differ significantly from a control group of professional returnees on two socio-psychological variables. (1) anchorage or their attitudes toward people, objects, practices, institutions, and values associated with the Philippines. (2) comparative opportunities or their evaluation of relative economic, social, and professional opportunities in the Philippines and the United States.

Jayme (1971) studied Filipino graduate students undertaking their training in non-medical fields in the United States. She suggested six factors were associated with the migration intention of highly skilled Filipinos to the United States. These factors included. (1) anchorage or the strength and quality of social, psychological and other ties binding a person to the homeland. (2) perception of comparative opportunities or a person's evaluation of relative economic, social, and professional opportunities in the Philippines and the United States. Comparative opportunity had two components. (a) the objective environmental factors in the home and host country that push or pull the subject toward either migration or return, and (b) the subjective perception of these factors by the subject and the comparing of these against his goals, values, and wants. (3) modernity with this variable referring to a

cluster of values, attitudes and behavior that characterize a person in highly urbanized, industrialized, and educated social settings. The Smith and Inkeles (1966) Overall Modernity Scale was used. This scale suggests that the following activity is characteristic of modernity: valuation of science, acceptance of birth control, interest in making plans, sense of efficiency, readiness for new experience, etc. (4) performance in the United States referred to a behavioral attitudinal variable that included both the academic and social sphere. Jayme developed a Performance Scale which consisted of ten items covering both objective indices of performance, i.e. grade point average, as well as subjective indices regarding how the subject perceived and was satisfied with his performance. (5) openness to American culture referred to the student's amount of contact and degree of involvement in American culture and was measured by a 14 item Openness Scale developed for the study. (6) perception of and attitude toward the United States was measured by a Semantic Differential Scale.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

The chief objective of this study was to analyze certain demographic and socio-psychological factors hypothesized to be associated with the migration intention of Filipino nurses - a group not studied by Jayme and others.

Is medical migration, as has been suggested by Walton (1967:17), the least typical of all skilled migration and the one from which no conclusions about the brain could be drawn? In the available literature on medical migration there are many indications that medical migration is different from the migration of scientists and engineers, with the former being caused to a larger extent by a single environmental factor, the acute shortage and consequent demand for medical personnel in the United States as noted by Howland (1967), Gish (1967), and Adams (1968).

This study proposes to investigate whether this is also the case with regard to the migration of Filipino nurses. Would the demographic and socio-psychological variables used by Cortes (1970) and Jayme (1971) and found to be associated with the migration intention of non-medical

skilled Filipinos also be associated with the migration intention of Filipino nurses who come to the United States? Using Cortes' and Jayme's variables to explain Filipino nurse migration might help determine whether nurse migration is similar or dissimilar to other forms of skilled migration.

This research will aim at analyzing some of the demographic and socio-psychological factors associated with the migration of Filipino nurses and replicating some of the findings of Bello et al., Cortes, and Jayme.

The Dependent Variable: Migration Intention

Migration intention was selected as the dependent variable since it cannot be ascertained whether all of those Filipino nurses now at work in Chicago area hospitals are here as permanent or temporary residents. It should be noted that the use of migration intention as the dependent variable, while being a necessary consequence of having nurses still to make their final decision to remain here or return to the Philippines, imposes a major limitation on this study. It is not known whether there is any great degree of correspondence between the self-reported measure of migration intention and actual migration. One way to overcome this limitation would be to conduct a longitudinal follow up of the present respondents' migration decisions. Meanwhile, a replication of Cortes' (1970) results would help bolster faith in the dependent variable used here, for Cortes' study was carried out on an actual sample of migrants and returnees.

A nurse's Migration intention was solicited by her answer to these four questions (Questionnaire items Q, R, S, and T).

1. Do you intend to return permanently to the Philippines at some future date?

   ___1. Yes
   ___2. No

   If your answer was Yes to the above question, please answer questions R and S. If you answered No, skip items R and S and go immediately to question T.

2. Estimate the possibility of your eventually returning permanently to the Philippines.

   ___1. very high (greater than an 80% possibility)
   ___2. high (between a 60% and 80% possibility)
   ___3. uncertain (between 40% and 60% possibility)
   ___4. low (between a 20% and 40% possibility)
   ___5. very low (less than a 20% possibility)

3. When do you expect to return permanently to the Philippines?

   ___1. within one year
   ___2. within two years
   ___3. within five years
   ___4. within ten years
   ___5. within fifteen years
   ___6. within twenty years
   ___7. indefinite

4. How eager are you to return to the Philippines?

   ___1. very much
   ___2. much
   ___3. uncertain
   ___4. somewhat
   ___5. not at all

Tables 7a, b, and c give the decision rules for classifying respondents as Migrants, Uncertain, or Returnees. Table 8 provides the marginal distribution of the 67 Filipino nurses in this study.

TABLE 7a

DECISION RULES FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS AS MIGRANTS

Response to Question 1: Return to the Philippines?	Response to Question 2: Possibility of Return?	Response to Question 3: When are you going home?	Response to Question 4: How eager to return home?
No	Any Response	Any Response	Any Response
Yes	Very Low Low	Any Response	Any Response
	Uncertain	Indefinite Within 20 yrs Within 15 yrs Within 10 yrs	Any Response
		Within 5 yrs	Not At All Somewhat Uncertain
	High	Indefinite Within 20 yrs Within 15 yrs	Any Response
		Within 10 yrs	Not At All Somewhat Uncertain
	Very High	Indefinite	Any Response
		Within 20 yrs Within 15 yrs Within 10 yrs	Not At All

TABLE 7b

DECISION RULES FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS AS UNCERTAIN

Response to Question 1: Return to the Philippines?	Response to Question 2: Possibility of Return?	Response to Question 3: When are you going home?	Response to Question 4: How eager to return home?
Yes	Uncertain	Within 5 yrs	Much Very Much
		Within 2 yrs Within 1 yr	Not At All Somewhat Uncertain Much
	High	Within 10 yrs	Very Much Much
		Within 5 yrs	Any Response
		Within 2 yrs	Not At All Somewhat Uncertain
	Very High	Within 20 yrs Within 15 yrs Within 10 yrs	Somewhat Uncertain Much Very Much
		Within 5 yrs	Not At All Somewhat

TABLE 7c

DECISION RULES FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS AS RETURNEES

Response to Question 1: Return to the Philippines?	Response to Question 2: Possibility of Return?	Response to Question 3: When are you going home?	Response to Question 4: How eager to return home?
Yes	Uncertain	Within 2 yrs Within 1 yr	Very Much
	High	Within 2 yrs Within 1 yr	Much Very Much
	Very High	Within 5 yrs	Uncertain Much Very Much
		Within 2 yrs Within 1 yr	Any Response

TABLE 8

MARGINAL DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRATION INTENTION

Migration Intention	N	%
Migrants	45	67.2
Returnees	22	32.8
Total	67	100.0

The Independent Variables

Data was gathered on 22 demographic and 2 socio-psychological variables and their association with Migration intention was examined. Table 9 lists the variables on which data was collected. The independent variables were grouped into six categories: (1) age variables, (2) educational variables, (3) family variables, (4) socio-economic variables, (5) occupational variables, (6) socio-psychological variables.

Table 10 gives the item make up of the two scales used in this study. The scales were scored using the following procedure. All items were scored in a single direction.

Name of Scale	Response Given Highest Score
Anchorage	Response most favorable to the Philippines
Comparative Opportunities	Response most favorable to the Philippines

For example:

> Nepotism and corruption are part and parcel of the Filipino way of life. (Questionnaire, Section II, item D)

Answer	Original Code	Score
Strongly Agree	1	1
Mildly Agree	2	2
Neither Agree or Disagree	3	3
Mildly Disagree	4	4
Strongly Disagree	5	5

TABLE 9

LIST OF VARIABLES ON WHICH DATA WAS GATHERED

Variable Category	Name of Variable
Age	1. Age of Nurse
	2. College Graduation Year
	3. Number of Years in United States
Education	4. Education Completed
	5. Type of School Attended
	6. Rank in College Graduation Class
	7. Nursing School Attended
	8. Location of Nursing School
Family	9. Marital Status
	10. Parents in United States
	11. Relatives and Friends in United States
	12. Citizenship
	13. Language Spoken at Home
	14. Location of Early Socialization
Socio-Economic Situation	15. Mother's Educational Attainment
	16. Father's Educational Attainment
	17. Father's Occupation
	18. Parents' Income
	19. Respondent's Evaluation of Socio-Economic Class
Occupation	20. Earnings in Philippines
	21. Future Job Aspirations
	22. Type of Visa
Socio-Psychological	23. Anchorage
	24. Comparative Opportunities

TABLE 10

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS MAKING UP SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL SCALES[a]

Name of Scale	Section	Items Making Up Scale	Number
Anchorage	II	A, B, C, D, E, G, H, I, and J	9
Comparative Opportunities	III	A, B, C, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, and M	11

[a]To refer to a particular item consult the questionnaire at the end of this thesis.

Hypotheses

From the 24 independent variables a subset of 10 variables was selected and these variables were crosstabulated with migration intention, the dependent variable. The hypotheses for this subset were:

Name of Variable	Hypotheses
Age of Nurse	H_o: There is no association between age and migration.
	H_1: Nurses born after 1940 are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those born in or before 1940.
Number of Years in United States	H_o: There is no association between how long a nurse has lived in the United States and migration intention.
	H_1: The longer a nurse has lived in the United States, the greater her tendency to express the intention of migrating.
Type of School Attended	H_o: There is no association between the type of school attended in the Philippines and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses who graduated from private schools tend to express the intention of migrating more than those who graduated from public schools.

Name of Variable	Hypotheses
Citizenship	H_o: There is no association between citizenship and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses who are Chinese Filipino are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who are Filipino citizens.
Location of Early Socialization	H_o: There is no association between where a nurse grew up in the Philippines and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses who grew up in metropolitan Manila are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who grew up in the Provinces.
Socio-Economic Class	H_o: There is no association between socio-economic class as indexed by mother's highest educational attainment and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses from the middle class are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those from any other class.
Type of Visa	H_o: There is no association between the type of visa held and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses with permanent resident visas are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those with Exchange-Visitors' visa.

Name of Variable	Hypotheses
Earnings in the Philippines	H_o: There is no association between what a nurse earned in the Philippines and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurse who earned less than 210 pesos are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who earned more than 210 pesos.
Anchorage to the Philippines	H_o: There is no association between a nurse's anchorage to the Philippines and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses who score high on the Anchorage Scale are apt to be returnees; those who score low on the same scale tend to be migrants.
Comparative Opportunities	H_o: There is no association between a nurse's perception of comparative opportunities in the United States and the Philippines and migration intention.
	H_1: Nurses who perceive that the United States provides them with greater opportunities than the Philippines are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who don't.

Control Variables

Of all the independent variables selected and crosstabulated with migration intention, anchorage showed the greatest degree of association. (chi-square = 5.71, $p < .025$) The power of anchorage as

a predictor of migration intention led to the formulation of the hypothesis that this variable might also serve as a meaningful intervening variable, accounting for most of the significant association obtained between migration intention and the other independent variables.

This hypothesis suggests that the association between the original independent variables (OV) and the dependent variable, migration intention (MI), operates through anchorage, the intervening variable (IV).

Independent Variables ⟶ Anchorage ⟶ Dependent Variable

OV ⟶ IV ⟶ MI

If this hypothesis is true, then by controlling for high and low anchorage scores the originally significant association between the independent variables (OV) and the dependent variable (MI) should disappear for one of the anchorage scores.

In Chapter VI the original association between migration intention and the selected independent variables as well as the association obtained by controlling for high and low anchorage scores will be presented.

CHAPTER IV

TYPE AND SOURCE OF DATA USED

The Survey Questionnaire

A three part survey questionnaire was designed to measure the migration intention and the demographic and socio-psychological variables thought to be related to Filipino nurse migration. Table 11 summarizes the questionnaire. Different sections of the questionnaire were reworded to eliminate the use of socially desirable terms like 'openness' and 'anchorage' so as not to bias some responses in a socially desirable direction. Part I of the questionnaire included demographic items as well as questions dealing with migration intention. Parts II and III contained the attitude scales developed by Cortes (1970).

The questionnaire was mailed out to a sample of Filipino nurses in the Chicago area. The majority of the questionnaires were mailed to the nurses at their home addresses. At one hospital the questionnaires were sent to the Director of Nursing who then distributed them to those nurses who were selected in the sample. A statement of pur-

TABLE 11

ORGANIZATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section No.	Section Title	Variables	Author
I	Demographic Background	Demographic	Morgan
II	Opinions about the Homeland	Anchorage	Cortes
III	Comparative Opportunities	Comparative Opportunities	Cortes

pose for the research and an assurance of anonymity were expressed in a letter that accompanied each questionnaire.

Questionnaires were mailed out on March 1, 1972 and the respondents were asked to return the completed form by March 10. Three weeks after the questionnaire was sent out a follow-up notice was mailed to help increase the rate of return. Of the 110 questionnaires sent out, 9 were returned by the post office, leaving 101 nurses in the adjusted sample. 67 completed questionnaires were finally returned. This was a return rate of 66.2%. This return rate is consistent with other studies done on Filipinos. Versoza (1965) received a return rate of 55% from the Filipino nurses she studied. Jayme (1971) had 72.2% of the respondents return her questionnaire.

CHAPTER V

SAMPLING DESIGN

Selection of Respondents

One of the greatest difficulties in this kind of research is to specify the population from which a sample might be drawn. Preliminary investigation of those who might know the size of Chicago's Filipino nurse community resulted in the conclusion that no one knew how many Filipino nurses were at work in Chicago area hospitals. The Philippine Consulate does not collect occupational data on its nationals nor was it even sure of how many Filipinos were in the Chicago area. The reason for this is that many Filipinos do not register with their consulate. The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice does collect occupational data on foreign aliens every January. However, a representative from the INS office in Chicago said that they would not be able to release any of the information they collected for private research projects.

The American Nursing Association wrote that they were not aware of any State Board of Nursing that collected and maintained current

information on foreign nurses. Finally, the Philippine Nursing Association of Chicago was contacted. This professional organization of Filipino nurses has been in existence for more than 10 years. I was able to obtain a current membership from the PNAC. Helpful though this list was, it did point out a very important fact, namely, very few Filipino nurses were members of this professional organization. In fact this list contained only 276 names. Informed sources in the Filipino community speculated that the total number of Filipino nurses was probably 5 or 6 times that figure. Further, there was no way of telling whether the 276 members of the PNAC were in any way representative or typical of the larger Filipino nurse community. I retained the PNAC list and attempted to enlarge it.

To determine the size of the Filipino nurse community in the Chicago area a letter was sent to each of the Directors of Nursing Service at 115 hospitals in the Chicago area. The 1970 American Hospital Guide provided the list of the hospitals contacted. The letter to each Director of Nursing Service outlined my research plan and asked each hospital to cooperate by supplying names and addresses of Filipino nurses on their staff. A month later a follow-up letter was sent to each hospital. Table 12 provides the response pattern from the hospitals contacted. 38(33%) hospitals did not respond to either of the two letters. 77(67%) hospitals did respond. Of the latter hospitals, 43 willingly supplied the names and addresses of Filipino nurses on their staff. These hospitals were classified as cooperating. 17 hospitals had no Filipino nurses on their staff.

TABLE 12

RESPONSE PATTERN OF CHICAGO HOSPITALS TO A REQUEST FOR COOPERATION

Response Pattern	Hospitals
No Response	38
Response	
Filipino nurses on staff names and addresses given	43
Filipino nurses on staff names and addresses not given	17
No Filipino nurses on the staff	17
Total	115

The remaining 17 hospitals, though they had Filipino nurses on their staff, could not cooperate in this study. These hospitals were classified as non-cooperating. Two reasons for non-cooperation were given by these hospitals. These included:

(1) Federal, State, and University of Illinois regulations prohibit the recording of race, color or creed of the applicants and further prohibit the direct questioning of an employee regarding these factors. (University of Illinois Medical Center)

(2) There are legal implications in releasing personal information concerning employees. It is the policy that names and addresses of employees are not released without their consent. (All of the other non-cooperating hospitals)

Table 13 gives the 43 cooperating hospitals ranked into 3 categories by number of Filipinos on nursing staff. The 1046 nurses provided by these hospitals was used as the population for this study. Table 14 gives the 17 hospitals with no Filipino nurses. Table 15 provides the 17 hospitals with a non-cooperation policy.

The names and addresses of the 1046 Filipino nurses that were provided by the 43 cooperating hospitals were grouped into 3 strata by the number of Filipinos on the nursing staff. From the subtotal for each of these strata a target sample of about 10% was decided on. For instance, hospitals with 1-10 Filipino nurses (subtotal 86) would supply 10 nurses to the sample; hospitals with 11-49 nurses (subtotal 327) would supply 35 nurses to the sample; and hospitals with over 50 nurses (subtotal 633) would supply 65 nurses to the sample. Such a procedure resulted in the sample size of 110.

Within each of the three strata the nurses were numbered. A table

TABLE 13

FILIPINO NURSES IN 43 COOPERATING CHICAGO AREA HOSPITALS

Hospitals: 1-10 Nurses	
1. Skokie Valley	1
2. Eye, Ears, Nose	1
3. Ingalls	1
4. LaRabida	2
5. Jackson Park	3
6. Holy Family	3
7. Resurrection	3
8. Christ Community	3
9. Westlake Community	4
10. St. Francis (B.I.)	4
11. Evanston	4
12. Passavant	5
13. South Shore	5
14. Ridgeway	6
15. Schwab	6
16. Englewood	7
17. Highland Park	8
18. Hinsdale	10
19. St. Alexius	10

Totals

19 Hospitals = 86 Nurses

Hospitals: 11-49 Nurses	
1. St. Theresa	13
2. Henrotin	14
3. Illinois Central	14
4. St. Anne	15
5. Forkosh	15
6. Northwest	16
7. Pres.-St. Luke	18
8. Ravenswood	21
9. Loretto	23
10. South Chicago	25
11. MacNeal	26
12. Weiss	26
13. Garfield Park	29
14. Osteopathic	35
15. Oak Park	37

Totals

15 Hospitals = 327 Nurses

Hospitals: more than 50 Nurses	
1. St. Francis (e)	51
2. St. Elizabeth	55
3. Mercy	59
4. Roosevelt	64
5. Nazareth	68
6. Cuneo-Columbus-Cabrini	76
7. Mt. Sinai	72
8. Norwegian-American	83
9. Illinois Masonic	105

Totals

9 Hospitals = 633 Nurses

43 Hospitals = 1046 Filipino Nurses

TABLE 14

HOSPITALS REPORTING NO FILIPINO NURSES

1. St. Margaret
2. Von Solbrig
3. St. James
4. Riveredge
5. Lake Forest
6. Condell Memorial
7. South Suburban
8. Shriners
9. St. Vincent
10. Oak Forest
11. McHenry
12. Lutheran General
13. Community Memorial
14. Contagious Disease
15. Roseland
16. Provident
17. Cermack Memorial

TABLE 15

NON-COOPERATING HOSPITALS

1. U. of I. Medical Center
2. U. of C. Hospitals
3. Swedish Covenant
4. Northwest Community
5. St. Anthony
6. Michael Reese
7. Louise Burg
8. Holy Cross
9. Grant
10. Gottlieb Memorial
11. Edgewater
12. Cook County
13. Children's Memorial
14. Bethesda
15. Bethany Methodist
16. Augustana
17. Forest

of random numbers (Rand Corporation, 1955:1-3) was used and the procedures outlined by Blalock (1960:395) for drawing a random sample were followed. A subsample was obtained for each of the three strata. The 110 nurses who were selected in this manner became the respondents. The questionnaire was sent to each of these Filipino nurses.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This study has taken as one of its purposes to replicate some of Jayme's (1971) and Cortes' (1970) findings regarding demographic factors associated with Filipino migration to the United States. Table 16 provides my results with those variables which replicated and failed to replicate these previous studies.

Migration and Age

The null hypothesis could be stated: There is no association between age and migration intention. A chi-square value of 4.35 was obtained. The null hypothesis could be rejected at $p < .025$. (Table 17)

Nurses from the Philippines who were born in or before 1940 expressed the intention of migrating $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more than nurses born after 1940. Nurses born after 1940 are about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines.

While there are specific differences between the two age groups there is no overall substantially strong relationship between age and migration intention. Age of nurse is sufficient to indicate migration

TABLE 16

REPLICATION AND NON-REPLICATION WITH JAYME AND CORTES

Replicated Findings

Variables	Findings	chi^2	df	p<
Number of Years in the USA	The longer a person has lived in the USA, the greater is the tendency to express the intention to migrate (This agrees with Jayme's finding)	5.92	1	.025
Type of School Attended in the Phil-ippines	There is little or no association between type of school attended in the Philippines and migration intention.			
	Elementary School	1.38	1	NS
	High School	0.88	1	NS
	College	0.01	1	NS
	This finding agrees with Jayme. Cortes, however, found that graduates of private schools tend to migrate more than graduates of public schools.			
Socio-Economic Class as Indexed	There is little or no association between socio-economic class and migration intention.			
	Mother's education	7.92	5	NS
	Father's education	0.64	5	NS
	Father's occupation	11.89	7	NS
	Parent's income	6.64	5	NS
	Personal evaluation	6.85	4	NS
	These findings agree with Jayme and Cortes.			

Variables	Findings	chi^2	df	p<
Earnings in the Philippines	Nurses making less than 210 pesos are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who earned more than 210 pesos. This finding agrees with Jayme and Cortes.	5.18	1	.025
Anchorage	Nurses who score high on the Anchorage Scale are apt to be returnees; those who score low on the same scale tend to be migrants.	5.71	1	.025

Non-Replicated Findings

Variables	Findings	chi^2	df	p<
Age	Nurses born in or before 1940 are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those born after 1940. Both Jayme and Cortes found that younger people tend to migrate more than older people.	4.35	1	.025
Comparative Opportunities	Nurses who perceived that the USA provided them with greater opportunity than the Philippines are more apt to express the intention of migrating than those who didn't. Both Jayme and Cortes found a relationship between perception of comparative opportunities and migration intention.	1.57	1	NS

TABLE 17

MIGRATION AND AGE

	Born Before 1940	Born After 1940	Total
Migrant	26 (81%)	19 (54%)	45
Returnee	6 (19%)	16 (46%)	22
Total	32	35	67

TABLE 17a

MIGRATION AND AGE CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Born Before 1940	Born After 1940	Total
Migrant	16 (100%)	8 (67%)	24
Returnee	0 (0%)	4 (33%)	4
Total	16	12	28

TABLE 17b

MIGRATION AND AGE CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Born Before 1940	Born After 1940	Total
Migrant	9 (64%)	10 (48%)	19
Returnee	5 (36%)	11 (52%)	16
Total	14	21	35

but it is not a necessary condition of migration.

Cortes (1970) found that younger people tend to migrate more than older people. Jayme's (1971) findings agree with this. Wilson (1966), on the contrary, found that it was the younger British migrants who thought more of returning to England because they tended to occupy positions offering less flexible conditions of work and fewer opportunities for rapid advancement.

When age and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .247	C = .346	C = .105

If we compare the association found in each of the two subsamples, we notice that the two contingency coefficients are not the same. We also find that the Low Anchorage subsample shows a stronger relationship than is present in the original table. Given these facts we can say that there is a direct relationship between age and migration intention provided a nurse is weakly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Number of Years in USA

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between how long a nurse has lived in the United States and migration intention. In this study a chi-square value of 5.92 was found. This makes it possible to reject the null hypothesis at $p < .025$. (Table 18)

As an alternative explanation the data seem to suggest that

TABLE 18

MIGRATION AND NUMBER OF YEARS IN USA

	Less Than 4.5 Years	More Than 4.5 Years	Total
Migrant	15 (50%)	30 (81%)	45
Returnee	15 (50%)	7 (19%)	22
Total	30	37	67

TABLE 18a

MIGRATION AND NUMBER OF YEARS IN USA CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Less Than 4.5 Years	More Than 4.5 Years	Total
Migrant	6 (67%)	18 (95%)	24
Returnee	3 (33%)	1 (5%)	4
Total	9	19	28

TABLE 18b

MIGRATION AND NUMBER OF YEARS IN USA CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Less Than 4.5 Years	More Than 4.5 Years	Total
Migrant	9 (43%)	10 (71%)	19
Returnee	12 (57%)	4 (29%)	16
Total	21	14	35

Filipino nurses who spent more than 4.5 years in the United States are $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of migrating. Those nurses who spent less than 4.5 years in the United States are $2\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines.

While there are specific differences between those who spent more than 4.5 years in the United States and those who spent less, there is no overall substantially strong relationship between number of years in the United States and migration intention. Number of years in the United States is sufficient to indicate migration but it is not a necessary condition of migration.

Jayme (1971) also found that the longer a person had lived in the United States, the greater was his tendency to express the intention of migrating.

Even when number of years in the United States and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .274	C = .256	C = .217

If we compare the contingency coefficients in the two subsamples we find that they are similiar. This fact enables us to conclude that there is essentially no interaction between number of years in the United States and anchorage scores as far as migration intention is concerned.

We also find that the amount of association in the original table is similiar to the association found in the two subsample tables. We could conclude that the relationship between number of years in the

United States and migration intention is independent of anchorage. This means that anchorage does not affect the original relationship. However, this does not mean that the number of years in the United States and migration intention are causally related. We could make such a statement only if this same situation continued after many control variables were used in place of anchorage.

Migration and Elementary School Ownership

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between the type of school attended in the Philippines (public or private) and migration intention. A chi-square value of 0.87 was obtained. Such a value makes it impossible to reject the null hypothesis.

However, Filipino nurses who graduated from private elementary schools are $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines. When high school and college ownership of institutions is considered, there is little or no variation. There appears to be among the Filipino nurses in the sample no overall substantially strong relationship between type of school attended in the Philippines and migration intention. (Table 19)

Cortes (1970) found that graduates of Filipino private schools tended to migrate more than graduates of Filipino public schools. Jayme (1971) found no association between the type of school attended in the Philippines and migration intention.

Although little or no variation was found between school ownership and migration intention, definite patterns did emerge from the

TABLE 19

MIGRATION AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OWNERSHIP

	Public	Private	Total
Migrant	35 (71%)	10 (56%)	45
Returnee	14 (29%)	8 (44%)	22
Total	49	18	67

TABLE 19a

MIGRATION AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OWNERSHIP CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Public	Private	Total
Migrant	17 (85%)	7 (87%)	24
Returnee	3 (15%)	1 (13%)	4
Total	20	8	28

TABLE 19b

MIGRATION AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL OWNERSHIP CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Public	Private	Total
Migrant	16 (64%)	3 (30%)	19
Returnee	9 (36%)	7 (70%)	16
Total	25	10	35

study. When elementary, high school, and college attended were considered eight possible paths or patterns were found. These were:

Path	Elementary	High School	College
1	Public	Public	Public
2	Public	Public	Private
3	Public	Private	Public
4	Public	Private	Private
5	Private	Private	Private
6	Private	Private	Public
7	Private	Public	Private
8	Private	Public	Public

Three of the above paths accounted for 80% of all the Filipino nurses in the sample. These were:

Path	Elementary	High School	College	%
2	Public	Public	Private	32.8
4	Public	Private	Private	25.4
5	Private	Private	Private	22.4
			Total	80.6

When elementary school ownership and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .113	C = .080	C = .238

Comparing the association found in the two subsamples we find that the contingency coefficient for the High Anchorage subsample is almost three times larger than the other one. We also find that the High Anchorage subsample indicates a stronger relationship than is present in the original table. With these facts we could say that there is a relationship between elementary school ownership and migration intention provided a nurse is strongly attached to values and attitudes

associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Citizenship

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between citizenship and migration intention. A chi-square value of 4.13 was found. This makes it possible to reject the null hypothesis at the $p < .025$ level.

Filipino nurses who are naturalized American citizens all expressed the intention of migrating. This same group of nurses also expressed the intention of migrating $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more than nurses who were still Filipino citizens. Nurses with Filipino citizenship are more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines. (Table 20)

Jayme (1971) found that Filipino-Chinese graduates expressed the intention of migrating more than Filipino graduate students. None of the nurses in my sample admitted that they were Chinese even though some of the family names would suggest Chinese parentage and citizenship. As a result no comparison with Jayme's finding was possible.

When citizenship and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .241	C = .021	C = .281

Comparing the association found in the two subsamples we find that the contingency coefficient for the High Anchorage subsample is almost fifteen times larger than the other one. It also appears that

TABLE 20

MIGRATION AND CITIZENSHIP

	Filipino Citizen	Naturalized American	Total
Migrant	35 (61%)	10 (100%)	45
Returnee	22 (39%)	0 (0%)	22
Total	57	10	67

TABLE 20a

MIGRATION AND CITIZENSHIP CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Filipino Citizen	Naturalized American	Total
Migrant	20 (83%)	4 (100%)	24
Returnee	4 (17%)	0 (0%)	4
Total	24	4	28

TABLE 20b

MIGRATION AND CITIZENSHIP CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Filipino Citizen	Naturalized American	Total
Migrant	14 (47%)	5 (100%)	19
Returnee	16 (53%)	0 (0%)	16
Total	30	5	35

the High Anchorage subsample shows a somewhat stronger relationship than is present in the original table. Given these facts we could say that there is a relationship between citizenship and migration intention provided a nurse is strongly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Location of Socialization

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between where a nurse grew up and migration intention. A chi-square value of 5.61 was found. The null hypothesis could be rejected at p .025 level.

As an alternative the data in this study seem to suggest that Filipino nurses who grew up in Manila would express the intention of migrating. Manila raised nurses are also $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of migrating than nurses who grew up in Provincial cities and towns. Nurses who were raised in the Provinces are more likely to be returnees. (Table 21)

Jayme (1971) and Cortes (1970) did not gather specific data on this variable so no comparison with their studies is possible.

When location of socialization and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .280	C = .064	C = .323

If we compare the association found in the two subsamples we find that the contingency coefficient for the High Anchorage subsample is almost five times larger than the other one. We also find that the

TABLE 21

MIGRATION AND LOCATION OF SOCIALIZATION

	Manila and Suburbs	Cities and Towns	Total
Migrant	12 (100%)	32 (59%)	44
Returnee	0 (0%)	22 (41%)	22
Total	12	54	66

TABLE 21a

MIGRATION AND LOCATION OF SOCIALIZATION CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Manila and Suburbs	Cities and Towns	Total
Migrant	5 (100%)	18 (82%)	23
Returnee	0 (0%)	4 (18%)	4
Total	5	22	27

TABLE 21b

MIGRATION AND LOCATION OF SOCIALIZATION CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Manila and Suburbs	Cities and Towns	Total
Migrant	6 (100%)	13 (45%)	19
Returnee	0 (0%)	16 (55%)	16
Total	6	29	35

High Anchorage subsample indicates a stronger relationship than is present in the original table. With these facts we can say that there is a relationship between location of socialization and migration intention provided a nurse is strongly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Mother's Education

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between social class as indexed by mother's education and migration intention. A chi-square value of 4.72 with two degrees of freedom was obtained. Given this value it would not be possible to reject the null hypothesis.

However, Filipino nurses whose mothers were classified as Upper Class because of educational attainment all expressed the intention of migrating. This same group of nurses are also $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of migrating than those nurses whose mothers were classified as Low Class because of educational attainment. Nurses whose mothers were classified as Low and Middle Class because of education are more likely to be returnees than those nurses whose mothers were classified as Upper Class. (Table 22)

Both Jayme (1971) and Cortes (1970) found that socio-economic class as indexed by educational attainment of mothers was not associated with migration intention.

Even when socio-economic status as indexed by mother's education controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .360	C = .258	C = .367

TABLE 22

MIGRATION AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION

	Low	Middle	High	Total
Migrant	19 (59%)	22 (71%)	4 (100%)	45
Returnee	13 (41%)	9 (29%)	0 (0%)	22
Total	32	31	4	67

TABLE 22a

MIGRATION AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Low	Middle	High	Total
Migrant	14 (93%)	9 (75%)	1 (100%)	24
Returnee	1 (7%)	3 (25%)	0 (0%)	4
Total	15	12	1	28

TABLE 22b

MIGRATION AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Low	Middle	High	Total
Migrant	5 (33%)	12 (67%)	2 (100%)	19
Returnee	10 (67%)	6 (33%)	0 (0%)	16
Total	15	18	2	35

If we compare the association found in the two subsample tables we see that the contingency coefficients are not the same. The contingency coefficient for the High Anchorage subsample is larger. We also find that the High Anchorage subsample has a contingency coefficient similar to the coefficient found in the original table. Given this we can say that whatever relationship there is between socio-economic class as indexed by mother's education and migration intention is due to the fact that a nurse is strongly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Earnings

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between how much a nurse earned in the Philippines and migration intention. A chi-square value of 5.18 makes it possible to reject the null hypothesis at $p < .025$.

The data from the study suggest that Filipino nurses who earned less than 210 Pesos a month in the Philippines are $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of migrating. Nurses who earned more than 210 Pesos a month in the Philippines are $2\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines. (Table 23)

This finding appears to agree with the findings of Jayme (1971) and Cortes (1970). They discovered that those who made less than the mean income prior to coming to the United States expressed the intention of migrating more than those whose earnings were more than the mean income.

TABLE 23

MIGRATION AND EARNINGS

	Less Than 210 Pesos	More Than 210 Pesos	Total
Migrant	25 (83%)	20 (54%)	45
Returnee	5 (17%)	17 (46%)	22
Total	30	37	67

TABLE 23a

MIGRATION AND EARNINGS CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Less Than 210 Pesos	More Than 210 Pesos	Total
Migrant	15 (100%)	9 (69%)	24
Returnee	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	4
Total	15	13	28

TABLE 23b

MIGRATION AND EARNINGS CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Less Than 210 Pesos	More Than 210 Pesos	Total
Migrant	9 (64%)	10 (48%)	19
Returnee	5 (36%)	11 (52%)	16
Total	14	21	35

When earnings in the Philippines and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .268	C = .319	C = .105

Comparing the association found in the two subsamples we see that the contingency coefficient for the Low Anchorage subsample is almost three times larger than the other one. We also find that the Low Anchorage subsample has a coefficient that is larger than the coefficient in the original table. With these facts we can say that there is a relationship between earnings in the Philippines and migration provided a nurse is weakly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

Migration and Type of Visa

The null hypothesis would be: There is no association between the type of visa held by the Filipino nurse and migration intention. A chi-square value of 6.89 with two degrees of freedom makes it possible to reject the null hypothesis at $p < .025$ level.

The data suggest that Filipino nurses who have become naturalized American citizens would express the intention of migrating. Nurses who are permanent residents are $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more likely to express the intention of migrating than are Exchange Visitor nurses. Nurses who are either Exchange Visitors or permanent residents are more likely to express the intention of returning to the Philippines than are nurses who have become naturalized American citizens. The Exchange Visitor

nurses in the sample are 2 times more likely to be returnees than are nurses with permanent resident visas. (Table 24)

When type of visa and migration intention controlling for anchorage scores is considered, we find:

Original Table (entire sample)	Low Anchorage (subsample)	High Anchorage (subsample)
C = .305	C = .209	C = .407

If we compare the association found in the two subsample tables we see that the contingency coefficients are not the same. The contingency coefficient for the High Anchorage subsample is about two times larger than the other coefficient. We also find that the High Anchorage subsample has a contingency coefficient that is larger than the coefficient in the original table. Given these facts we can say that there is an association between type of visa and migration intention provided a nurse is strongly attached to values and attitudes associated with the Philippines.

TABLE 24

MIGRATION AND TYPE OF VISA

	Exchange Visitor	Permanent Resident	U.S. Citizen	Total
Migrant	2 (40%)	33 (64%)	10 (100%)	45
Returnee	3 (60%)	19 (36%)	0 (0%)	22
Total	5	52	10	67

TABLE 24a

MIGRATION AND TYPE OF VISA CONTROLLING FOR LOW ANCHORAGE

	Exchange Visitor	Permanent Resident	U.S. Citizen	Total
Migrant	2 (100%)	18 (82%)	4 (100%)	24
Returnee	0 (0%)	4 (18%)	0 (0%)	4
Total	2	22	4	28

TABLE 24b

MIGRATION AND TYPE OF VISA CONTROLLING FOR HIGH ANCHORAGE

	Exchange Visitor	Permanent Resident	U.S. Citizen	Total
Migrant	0 (0%)	15 (54%)	4 (100%)	19
Returnee	3 (100%)	13 (46%)	0 (0%)	16
Total	3	28	4	35

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

This study has at least one major shortcoming. The dependent variable used throughout was migration intention and not actual migration. The correspondence between these two variables is still unknown. A longitudinal study of nurses' actual migration decisions would clarify this issue. Meanwhile one set of findings serves to bolster faith in the dependent variable and the other finding raises questions about the utility of migration intention as a suitable dependent variable.

With the exception of two independent variables, i.e. comparative opportunities and age, Jayme's (1971) and Cortes' findings regarding demographic and socio-psychological variables related to migration were replicated. (Table 16) It should be remembered that Cortes' respondents were actual migrants and returnees who had already completed their period of study in the United States.

The decision rules, adopted a priori, for classifying nurses as migrants or returnees produced a proportion of migrants that was not consistent with two other studies on the brain drain from the Philippines. Jayme (1971) classified 35% of her respondents as migrants.

Bello et al. (1969) found that of those who study abroad after college in the Philippines a maximum of 40% migrate. In this study 67% of the nurses were classified as migrants. This difference may be due to one or both of the following.

Filipino nurses are unlike Filipino foreign students with the result that the dependent variable found useful in studying foreign students might not be suitable in studying nurses.

Migration intention as a dependent variable is not useful in studying groups who are still in the process of making up their minds whether to migrate or not.

Importance of Anchorage

This study demonstrates that anchorage proved to be a suitable intervening variable for it explained many of the original correlations between the independent variables and migration intention. Number of years in the United States was the only variable that was found to be related to migration intention but not through anchorage.

The potency of anchorage as an intervening variable suggests that it should be examined as a predictor of migration intention. This could be done by carrying out a regression analysis on the data in order to isolate the most important predictors of migration and to determine the extent to which this subset of variables is successful in predicting migration intention.

Further the importance of anchorage suggests that research should be done with anchorage as the dependent variable. What demographic factors produce a person highly anchored to the Philippines? In addition

to the demographic determinants of anchorage the effects of environmental factors on anchorage should also be investigated. For instance, how does the present political situation of martial law affect anchorage? Do unrest and instability serve as powerful push factors weakening a Filipino's ties to his homeland and leading him to perceive more opportunities in other lands?

Finally a semantic differential scale could be used to examine how Filipino nurses view both the Philippines and the United States. Would these nurses view the Philippines more or less favorably than the United States? Would Jayme's (1971) finding that 61% of the respondents perceived their actual selves and 80% of their ideal selves to be more similar to the United States than to the Philippines also be true of Filipino nurses? This would be worth investigating.

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The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

May 19, 1975
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